

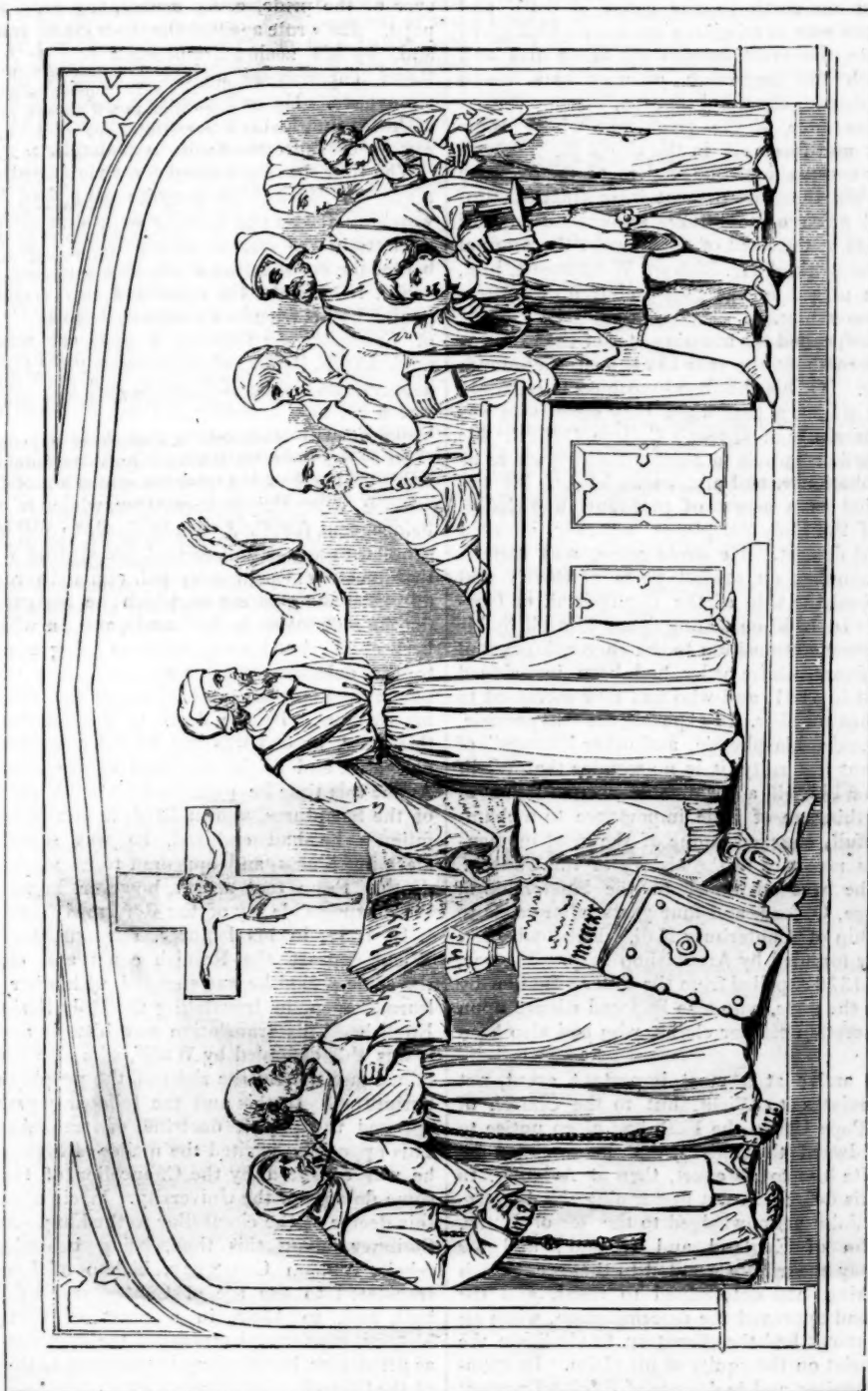
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WESTMACOTT'S MONUMENT TO WICLIF, IN LUTTERWORTH CHURCH.

WICLIF.

"THE very names of Wiclif, Lord Cobham, Huss, &c." says Gilpin, "will not only awaken sentiments of gratitude and veneration in every ingenuous heart, but will likewise excite a laudable desire of being particularly acquainted with the lives and characters of those eminent worthies who, in times of peculiar danger and difficulty, nobly dared to oppose the tyrannical usurpation, and barbarous superstition of the Church of Rome, and sacrificed every valuable consideration on earth to the cause of truth and liberty. Wiclif was in religion what Bacon afterwards was in science, the great detector of those arts and glosses which the barbarism of ages had drawn together to obscure the mind of man."

A short memoir of the great man whose name occurs first and foremost in the above passage, will doubtless be acceptable to the readers of the *Saturday Magazine*. We therefore present it, in illustration of the beautiful piece of sculpture, an outline copy of which appears at the head of this paper; the original bas-relief, the work of Mr. Richard Westmacott, jun., having been placed in the parish-church of Lutterworth, Leicestershire.

John Wiclif, called the morning-star of the Reformation, was born about the year 1324, near Richmond, in Yorkshire. Of his childhood, nothing is certainly known; but we learn that when only sixteen he was admitted commoner of Queen's College, Oxford. He soon afterwards removed to Merton College, where he was first probationer, and afterwards fellow. He was soon regarded as a person of profound knowledge. The study of the Holy Scriptures, however, afforded him the most delight. He wrote notes, and expositions, and homilies on several parts of them; and thence acquired the title of the Evangelical, or Gospel Doctor. In 1360 he distinguished himself by his wise and vigorous opposition to the encroachments of the begging friars, whose order had been introduced into England in 1221, and who had now increased to an extravagant number. In exposing the "hypocrisie, covetise, simonie, blasphemie, and other leasings" of this mendicant fraternity, it is no wonder that Wiclif heaped up for himself a formidable accumulation of wrath: but this was of little importance to a champion successfully engaged in one of the most momentous contests recorded in the history of the Church.

In 1361 he was advanced to the Mastership of Baliol College, Oxford, and four years afterwards to the wardenship of Canterbury Hall, which had been then recently founded by Archbishop Islip. He was, however, in 1370 expelled from the latter situation by a bull from the pope, who also imposed silence upon him and on certain secular clerks, who had also been ejected.

We now arrive at a most important event, not only as it relates to Wiclif, but to the Church of England. Pope Urban the Fifth had given notice to the king (Edward the Third), that he intended by process to cite him to his court, then at Avignon, to answer for his default in not performing the homage which King John acknowledged to the see of Rome, for his realm of England and Ireland; and for refusing to pay the tribute granted to that see. Such claim the king had determined to resist, and the parliament had approved the determination, when an anonymous monk had the effrontery to vindicate the Pope, and insist on the equity of his claim. In opposition to that writer, and in defence of England against popish usurpation, Wiclif presented himself as a zealous, able, and successful antagonist.

In 1372, having taken his degree of Doctor of Divi-

nity, and become Theological Professor in the University of Oxford, Wiclif publicly read lectures on theology, and again directed his attention to the exposition of the abuses which had at that period crept into the Church.

In 1374 Wiclif was sent by the king, with other ambassadors, to treat with the pope, and to protest against the improper disposal of English benefices on Italians, Frenchmen, and other aliens, ignorant of our language. In the course of this treaty, which lasted for two years, Wiclif was made more sensible than ever of the pride, covetousness, and ambition of the pope. He wrote against the doctrine of indulgences, and, by his zealous opposition to the Church of Rome, encountered no small share of obloquy and annoyance. He had now been appointed Prebendary of Aust; and in 1376 the king presented him with the rectory of Lutterworth, in Leicestershire.

The time having arrived for a violent attack to be made on Wiclif, by enemies who had long been watching for an opportunity to gratify their revenge, a citation was issued, commanding him to appear before the convocation at St. Paul's on the 19th February, 1377. On the appointed day Wiclif, accompanied by his friend and patron, John of Gaunt, duke of Lancaster, and Henry Piercy, earl-marshal, attended at St. Paul's, when, in consequence of a quarrel between the bishop of London and the earl-marshal, which led to a dreadful riot out of doors, the court broke up without adopting any measures.

In June, 1378, the papal delegates sat again, having assembled at Lambeth, for the execution of their commission, when the queen-mother, widow of the Black Prince, sent for Sir Lewis Clifford, to forbid them to proceed to any definitive sentence against Wiclif. At that meeting Wiclif attended, and delivered an able and interesting paper, in which he assigned reasons for the statements he had made, and for which he had been cited; but his explanations being unsatisfactory to the delegates, they commanded him no more to repeat such propositions, either in the schools or in his sermons. By the death of Pope Gregory XI. in this year, an end was put to the commission of the delegates, and Wiclif appeared before them no more. About this time he published his book on the Truth of the Scriptures, and in 1379, in consequence of the fatigues he had endured, he was seized with an alarming illness, and appeared to be at the point of death. From that attack, however, he recovered, to the inexpressible joy of the Reformed Church.

In 1380, in his lectures, sermons, and writings, Wiclif exposed the Romish court and clergy. At the same period he was engaged, with other pious and learned men, in translating the Holy Scriptures into English. This translation was bitterly assailed, but it was ably defended by Wiclif, who also firmly maintained and upheld the right of the people to read the Scriptures. In this and the following year he ably opposed the popish doctrine of transubstantiation. This opposition excited the malice of his enemies, and he was censured by the Chancellor of Oxford, and some doctors of the University. Wiclif appealed from this decree of the chancellor to the king. Archbishop Sudbury, about this time, being beheaded by the rebels, William Courtenay, bishop of London, was translated to the see of Canterbury, by the pope's bull, and, in 1382, in a court of certain select bishops, condemned several of the opinions of Wiclif, as pernicious, heretical, and repugnant to the doctrines of the Church.

In addition to these, and other strong measures, Courtenay obtained letters-patent from the king, directing that Wiclif, with other excellent men, should

be expelled from the University of Oxford, and ordered that his publications should be everywhere seized and destroyed. Thus persecuted, and overcome by force, he was at length obliged to quit his professor's office, and retire to Lutterworth; where, however, he still continued his studies, and endeavoured to promote the reformation of those corruptions which he was convinced were everywhere prevalent, through the glosses and unscriptural assumptions of the Romish Church.

Soon after his removal to Lutterworth, he was seized with a fit of the palsy, of which he soon recovered, being again able to perform the pastoral functions of his parish, and to undergo those severe labours which his sense of duty, in trying times, had imposed upon him. Still hunted by his enemies, he was cited to appear before Pope Urban, but he returned a letter of excuse, and did not attend. Though his health had now begun gradually to decline, he preached the word of God, in season and out of season; till at length, on Innocent's day, 1384, he was attacked with another fit of the palsy, while performing the service in Lutterworth church. In this state he remained two days; and was finally taken to his rest on the last day of the year, and in the sixty-first year of his age*.

Wiclif had well studied all the branches of theological learning,—was deeply skilled in the ecclesiastical and civil law;—was grave, yet cheerful, and, above all things, loved God with all his heart, and his neighbour as himself. His writings were numerous and learned, and assisted greatly in bringing about the establishment of our Reformed Church, which is the true instructress of the people in pure and undefiled Christianity, and on the principles of which our Constitution, in Church and State, are founded. May those principles ever be respected!

* Admirable, that a hare so often hunted, with so many packs of dogs, should die at last quietly sitting in his form!—FULLER.

INSCRIPTION UNDER AN HOUR-GLASS, IN A GROTTO NEAR THE WATER.

THIS babbling stream not uninstrucive flows,
Nor idly loiters to its destined main;
Each flower it feeds that on its margin grows,
And bids thee blush, whose days are spent in vain.
Nor void of moral, though unheeded, glides
Time's current, stealing on with silent haste;
For, lo! each falling sand his folly chides,
Who lets one precious moment run to waste.

EPITAPH ON THOMSON, Author of *THE SEASONS*.

OTHERS to marble may their glory owe,
And boast those honours sculpture can bestow:
Short-lived renown! that every moment must
Sink with its emblem, and consume to dust.
But Thomson needs no artist to engrave,
From dumb oblivion no device to save;
Such vulgar aid let names inferior ask,
Nature for him assumes herself the task;
The Seasons are his monuments of fame,
With them to flourish, as from them it came.

WE behold with admiration the vivid azure of the vaulted sky, and variegated colours of the distant clouds; but, if we approach them on the summit of some lofty mountain, we discover that the beautiful scene is all illusion, and find ourselves involved only in a dreary fog, or a tempestuous whirlwind; just so, in youth, we look up with pleasing expectation to the pleasures and honours which we fondly imagine will attend maturer age; at which, if we arrive, the brilliant prospect vanishes in disappointment, and we meet with nothing more than a dull inactivity or turbulent contentions.—SOAME JENYNS.

A DISCOURSE ON GEOLOGY.

II.

HEAT OF THE GLOBE.

THE solar rays are the principal source of heat on the surface of the globe, the temperature varying in relation to the amount of these rays, and consequently decreasing from the equator to the poles. The temperature also varies with day and night, and with the seasons of the year. At a certain depth below the surface, nowhere exceeding one hundred feet, these variations become insensible, and the temperature is constant, or fixed, being nearly the same as the mean temperature at the surface.

If from this point of equable temperature, we find a gradual decrease of heat as we dig deep into the earth, we must necessarily conclude that the interior parts are colder than the surface, and that there is no reason to imagine the earth to have any other heat than that derived from the solar rays. But if, on the contrary, it be found that as we descend into the earth, an increase of temperature occurs, we cannot but admit that the earth has a proper or inherent temperature derived from internal sources. Experiment proves the latter to be the case.

These trials to determine the internal heat of the earth have been made at various depths, and under different circumstances—in artesian wells, salt pits, coal-works, and mines of different metals; and it appears to be fully ascertained, that in situations far removed from volcanic action, and in different kinds of strata, water, air, and rocks continually grow warmer as we descend in the earth. Without a single exception, the interior of the globe has been found to be warmer than the surface; and the heat augments constantly with the depth; the mean or average increase, being one degree of Fahrenheit in forty-five English feet. Indeed, the heat in some deep mines becomes so oppressive, that the miners can with difficulty pursue their labours.

Such being the case, it will be evident, if the same ratio of increase continue, that the heat at considerable depths in the interior of the earth must be most intense, acting as the mighty counteracting cause before alluded to, which prevents the compression of the materials in the interior of the earth. The notion of an incandescent mass in the interior of the earth is startling to many, and not without discomfort to some; but so far from finding in this any cause of alarm, a further consideration of the subject will declare to us that the preservation of the world in its existing state is probably dependent on this powerful agent.

Thus, in thy world external, Mighty Mind,
Not that alone which solaces and shines,
The rough and gloomy too demands our praise.
The winter is as needful as the spring;
The thunder as the sun.

The temperature at the surface is, as has already been observed, dependent on solar radiation; and the rocks in the upper strata of the earth are such bad conductors of heat, that no sensible effect appears to be produced at the surface by this internal heat. It may, and probably has sufficient influence, to prevent the refrigeration or cooling of the earth beyond the present temperature at the surface, and thus may act its part in adapting the earth for the present races of organized beings. But we must remember that this intensely heated mass in the interior of the globe is no new condition of things, but that if it exist, it must have existed for many centuries, probably from the era of man's creation. For it appears, there is no reason to conclude that any change has taken

place in the climates of the earth since the earliest historical records; and astronomy informs us that the general temperature of the mass of the globe has not varied one-tenth part of a degree for the last two thousand years. This is proved by calculations of the moon's motion. All solid rocks, except clay, expand when heated, and were the heat of the globe increased, its diameter would be augmented and its motion retarded. If, on the other hand, the heat of the globe were diminished, this motion would be accelerated; and thus we may be led to the conclusion that so far from being an element of destruction, the very continuation of the earth in its present state may be dependent on this intensely heated mass, ordained for this purpose by an all-preserving God.

It is, however, supposed that the internal temperature of the earth may have been considerably greater in ancient geological eras; and that by the greater heat thus at those periods communicated to the surface, even the frozen regions of the present day may have been capable of sustaining races of organic beings, found in those parts in a fossil state, but whose modern representatives only inhabit the hottest regions of the globe.

GENERAL ARRANGEMENT OF STRATA.

On examining into the structure of the earth's crust, (as that small portion of the exterior of the globe accessible to man's observation is termed,) we discover in all parts a series of mineral masses evidently not scattered and mixed at random, but arranged in much order, and frequently spread over areas of considerable extent. And though, in some cases, we find that the original position of these mineral masses has undergone great subsequent disturbance, proofs of the order that once prevailed may be distinctly observed.

The greater part of these mineral masses, which constitute the rocks and beds or strata of the earth, are evidently composed of matter deposited by, or accumulated under water, formed in a manner similar to that which is constantly in progress at the present day, in the beds of rivers, lakes, and in the ocean. In most instances the water carries down sand, clay, and other sedimentary matter, which sinks to the bottom, and banks and shoals are formed. These, at least such as come under our observation, are usually of small extent; whilst the different groups of strata of the ancient world are mostly on a scale of great magnitude. Thus we find masses of limestone several hundred feet in thickness, and in other places vast beds of sand or of clay. An examination of sandstone rocks leaves no doubt that they have experienced the agitation of water; such are called sedimentary deposits. Some limestones yield evidence of similar agitation, but others appear to be *aggregates* or *aggregations* of particles of carbonate of lime, slowly deposited from water holding that substance in solution.

It will be evident that if we find a series of horizontal strata of sedimentary origin, the uppermost bed must be of later formation than those which are beneath; some instances occur, indeed, where by convulsions of extraordinary violence the original position of the strata has been actually reversed; but such instances are rare, though it is by no means uncommon to meet with strata thrown into an inclined position.

These strata are all characterized by their peculiar fossils, the greater part being full of the remains of marine exuviae, exactly as we might expect to find the bed of the ocean at this day filled with the exuviae of now existing or lately perished animals.

In each system of strata lie entombed the remains of different races of beings, all successively buried in marine or fresh-water sediments, (the latter being of much rarer occurrence,) on the same area or surface, forming "a series of monuments" which mark the numerous changes of organic and inorganic nature.

It appears, therefore, that the greater part of the present continents at some former period existed in a sedimentary form at the bottom of the sea. But to have become so consolidated as they are at present, these formations must have been subjected to some other condition, some other agent must have been at work. This agent is supposed to be subterranean heat, acting upon the various substances of which the rocks are composed, either whilst under the pressure of super-incumbent or overlying rocks, or that of a deep ocean.

These sedimentary rocks, though apparently modified by heat, are evidently of *aqueous* origin, or formed by water; but there is another class of rocks which appear to be of *igneous* origin, or formed by fire, or heat. Among these rocks are granite, trap, lava, &c. All these igneous rocks present the appearance of having been in a state of fusion, and as they all either form the lowest of the series of rocks, or have apparently been ejected from an unknown depth below, in a melted state, as is the case with existing volcanoes, they corroborate the opinion of great central heat.

These various formations occur in all parts of the globe, though they have hitherto been principally studied in Europe and in North America. Great Britain is singularly prolific in an extensive range of geological formations, and it has been prettily said, "As if nature wished to imitate our geological maps, she has placed in the corner of Europe our island, containing an *index series* of European formations in full detail*." Indeed, the series of British strata represent very well the succession of stratified rocks not only in Europe, but also in part of Africa, Asia, and North America, the agreement being very close in those parts which are nearest to the British islands, and being vague and indefinite as the distance increases. The greater number of recognised stratified rocks occur in this island, and though volcanoes are unknown, igneous rocks belonging to the granite and trap formations are met with in some parts; and few districts of such comparatively small area, perhaps, present so complete an assemblage of the successive geological groups. This is a fact of much interest to the British student of geology, who thus may have it in his power to study all these formations in his native land. They do not, however, occur equally in all parts of the island, and should our attention be confined to a limited district, we might very possibly find the number of strata exceedingly limited. It has been amusingly remarked, that, "If a stranger were to land in Cornwall, and, after traversing the whole extent of that county and of North Devon, and crossing over to St. David's, were to make the tour of North Wales, and from thence passing by the Isle of Man, through Cumberland, to the southwestern shores of Scotland, should proceed either through the border counties, or along the range of the Grampians to the German Ocean, he would conclude from such a journey of many hundred miles, that Britain was a thinly peopled, sterile region, whose principal inhabitants were miners and mountaineers.

"Another foreigner, arriving on the coast of Devon, and crossing the midland counties, from the mouth

* WHEWELL'S Anniversary Address, 1839.

of the Exe to that of the Tyne, would find a succession of fertile hills and valleys, thickly overspread with towns and cities, and in many parts crowded with a manufacturing population, whose industry is maintained by the coal with which the strata of these districts are abundantly interspersed.

"A third foreigner might travel from the coast of Dorset to the coast of Yorkshire, over elevated plains of oolitic limestone, or of chalk, without a single mountain, or mine, or coal-pit, or any important manufactory, and occupied by a population almost exclusively agricultural.

"Let us suppose these three strangers to meet at the termination of their journeys, and to compare their respective observations: how widely different then would be the results to which each would have arrived respecting the actual condition of Great Britain*."

These differences would have arisen from the peculiar geological structure of the different parts of our island. And in a similar manner, the student in geology, if he would become acquainted by personal observation with the various strata, must direct his course with due consideration, and not expect to meet with the whole series in a limited district, but only to accomplish it by extensive and judicious travel and research.

To this arrangement of the strata perhaps the prosperity of Great Britain may in a great measure be attributed, for the three principal sources of national wealth,—mining, manufactures, and agriculture,—are thus combined in the small compass of this island,

which stands
As Neptune's park ribbed and paled in
With rocks unscalable, and roaring waters,
With sands that will not bear her enemy's boats,
But suck them to the top-mast.

* DR. BUCKLAND'S *Bridgewater Treatise*.

[Abridged from ZORNLIN'S *Recreations in Geology*.]

If we know ourselves, we shall remember the condescension, benignity, and love, that is due to *inferiors*; the affability, friendship, and kindness, we ought to show to *equals*; the regard, deference, and honour, we owe to *superiors*; and the candour, integrity, and benevolence, we owe to *all*.—MASON.

WHEN 'mongst yon venerable oaks I rove,
I own the Deity that fills the grove;
If the sage tree no voice prophetic gives,
If in its bark no fabled Dryad lives,
He gave each towering trunk to rise, He spread
The waving foliage of each reverend head;
Known in each leaf unfolding to the Spring,
Seen in each insect of the meanest wing,
Found in each herb, each flower that decks the field,
In every walk conversed with and beheld:
Blest intercourse! when deigns with man to join
The all-gracious presence of the Power divine;
When, great example of primeval grace,
Man communes with his God as face to face.

BISHOP HURD.

HOME! 'tis the name of all that sweetens life;
It speaks the warm affection of a wife,
The hisping babe that prattles on the knee
In all the playful grace of infancy,
The spot where fond parental love may trace
The growing virtues of a blooming race.
Oh! 'tis a word of more than magic spell,
Whose sacred power the wanderer best can tell;
He who, long distant from his native land,
Feels at her name his eager soul expand;
Whether as patriot, husband, father, friend,
To that dear point his thoughts, his wishes bend;
And still he owns, where'er his footsteps roam,
Life's choicest blessings centre all, in Home!

THE NATURAL HISTORY OF THE MONTHS.

II.

FEBRUARY.

.....Then came old February, sitting
In an old wagon, for he could not ride,
Drawne of two fishes for the season fitting,
Which through the flood before did softly slide
And swim away; yet had he by his side
His plough and harness fit to till the ground,
And tools to prune the trees, before the pride
Of hasting prime did make them burgeon round

SPENSER.

THE name of this month is derived from the Roman custom of burning expiatory sacrifices, called *Februalia*. The first day of the month is called in the *Calendarium Naturale*, *PRIMAVERALIS*, or the first day of early Spring. Still, however, the early part of the month belongs to Winter; and although the cold is considerably diminished, and the ice everywhere begins to melt, yet the aspect of nature is gloomy—the trees appear like lifeless skeletons, with none of that fleshy verdure which makes them look so beautiful in Summer—the skies are cold and their aspect is gray—our favourite country walks are miry and uninviting—the air is either damp and foggy or cold and keen—we feel inclined to wonder where the feathered tribe can find a home, and where they can procure their food: let one of Scotland's sweetest poets answer us.

..... The fowls of heaven,
Tamed by the cruel season, crowd around
The winnowing store, and claim the little boon
Which Providence assigns them. One alone,
The Redbreast, sacred to the household gods,
Wisely regardless of the embroiling sky,
In joyless fields and thorny thickets leaves
His shivering mates, and pays to trusted man
His annual visit.—GRAHAM.

At this time of the year, when the ice and snow are suddenly melted by a thaw, accompanied by a south wind and much rain, great injury is done to the country by torrents of water from the hills, whereby brooks and rivers are swollen beyond the limits of their beds; the ice is broken up with great violence, and, borne along by the flood, is dashed against barges and bridges, sometimes to the destruction of both; the fields are often inundated, trees and embankments, and sometimes cattle, washed away, and, in the course of a few hours, great losses of property are sustained. The thaw is often succeeded by frost and snow, and the alternations from cold to mild weather are frequent.

As the month advances, we observe many harbingers of Spring, both in the animal and vegetable world. The sweet notes of the woodlark are heard; and the raven and the rook begin to repair their nests; geese begin to lay, and the thrush and the chaffinch are already tuning their sweet pipes; the wood-owls are ready with their hoot, and towards night partridges begin to be heard making their well-known harsh noise; the missel, blackbird, wren, and robin are in song, and may be heard, even in frosty weather. In warm days the bees begin to show signs of their active industry, and red butterflies, which have concealed themselves within our houses during winter, sometimes fly about our rooms. On fine days gnats and some other insects commence their sports; the hedge-sparrow chirps his ineffectual song; skylarks sing on sunny mornings, and the field-lark enlivens the stubble-fields with his brilliant notes.

As soon as the earth is softened, (says Aikin,) moles go to work in throwing up their hillocks. Under some of the largest, a little below the surface of the ground, they make their nests of moss, in which four or five young are found at a time. These animals feed on worms, beetles, and the roots of plants. They do much mischief in gardens, by

loosening and devouring flower-roots, and in the fields by rendering the surface of the soil unequal by their hillocks, which obstruct the scythe in mowing. They are also accused of piercing the sides of dams and canals, and letting out the water; the strong muscles of their fore-feet, together with their hand-like form, admirably fit this animal for swimming; and it has lately been observed, that in this way moles pass from the shore to the little islands in some of the Scotch lakes.

The vegetable world now also presents us with a few heralds of the young Spring: many plants rise up, but few flowers are hardy enough to appear. The delicate snowdrop has prepared its modest bell by Candlemas-eve, and sometimes earlier: hence the poetic terms of "our lady of February," "the fair maid of February," and "Purification flower," have been applied to it in Roman Catholic times.

Already now the snowdrop dares appear,
The first, pale blossom of the unripened year;
As Flora's breath, by some transforming power,
Had changed an icicle into a flower,
Its name and hue the scentless plant retains,
And winter lingers in its icy veins.—BARBAULD.

In mild weather an occasional primrose is found flowering on warm banks: but the general time for flowering is a month or two later. Hyacinths flower to their water-glasses, and afford a graceful ornament in our rooms. Mosses and lichens are rich and various, and will reward the close attention of the lover of nature. The green leaves of the daffodil appear: the red primrose, and the yellow Spring crocus; polyanthuses and daisies, occasionally, and in sheltered situations, begin to display their charms: the periwinkle creeps along, bearing its small blue flower: the common pilewort, or lesser celandine, that "prophet of delight and mirth," must not be forgotten, with its little yellow stars, like gems on the wood sides, especially as that true poet of nature, Wordsworth, has written such beautiful lines in its praise. The elder-tree now puts forth its flower-buds; the catkins of the hazel are apparent in the hedges; gooseberry and currant trees put forth young leaves by the end of the month; and the ascent of sap in plants and trees is one of the wonderful preparatives of the scene of vernal life and beauty, of freshness and vitality, which makes Spring the most delicious time of the year.

..... These naked shoots
Barren as lances, among which the wind
Makes wintry music, sighing as it goes,
Shall put their graceful foliage on again,
And more aspiring, and with ampler spread,
Shall boast new charms, and more than they have lost.

From dearth to plenty, and from death to life,
Is Nature's progress, when she lectures man
In heavenly truth; evincing as she makes
The grand transition, that there lives and works
A soul in all things, and that soul is God.—COWPER.

As soon as the ground is sufficiently thawed the farmer begins his work in the fields; he ploughs up his fallows, and sows Spring wheat, beans, and peas; sets early potatoes; drains wet lands; dresses and repairs hedges; lops trees, and plants those which thrive best in a wet soil, such as poplars and willows.

In clear weather the southern sky displays a grand exhibition of stars: the brilliant stars Sirius and Procyon, and those composing the beautiful constellation of Orion, remaining visible all night.

We cannot better conclude this article, than by calling the reader's attention to one of the two poems by Wordsworth, to which we have already alluded. This little poem is generally quoted, we know not for what reason, in a mutilated form; we prefer, however, to give it as the poet wrote it, without marring its beauty by making it incomplete.

TO THE SMALL CELANDINE.

PANSIES, lilies, kingcups, daisies,
Let them live upon their praises;
Long as there's a sun that sets,
Primroses will have their glory;
Long as there are violets,
They will have a place in story:
There's a flower that shall be mine,
'Tis the little Celandine.

Eyes of some men travel far,
For the finding of a star;
Up and down the heavens they go,
Men that keep a mighty rout!
I'm as great as they, I trow,
Since the day I found thee out,
Little flower!—I'll make a stir,
Like a great astronomer.

Modest, yet withal an elf,
Bold, and lavish of thyself;
Since we needs must first have met,
I have seen thee, high and low,
Thirty years or more, and yet
'Twas a face I did not know;
Thou hast now, go where I may
Fifty greetings in a day.

Ere a leaf is on a bush,
In the time before the thrush
Has a thought about her nest,
Thou wilt come with half a call,
Spreading out thy glossy breast
Like a careless prodigal;
Telling tales about the sun,
When we've little warmth, or none.

Poets, vain men in their mood!
Travel with the multitude;
Never heed them; I aver
That they all are wanton wooers;
But the thrifty cottager,
Who stirs little out of doors,
Joys to spy thee near her home;
Spring is coming, Thou art come!

Comfort have thou of thy merit,
Kindly, unassuming spirit!
Careless of thy neighbourhood,
Thou dost show thy pleasant face
On the moor, and in the wood,
In the lane—there's not a place,
Howsoever mean it be,
But 'tis good enough for thee.

Ill befall the yellow flowers,
Children of the flaring hours!
Buttercups that will be seen,
Whether we will see or no;
Others, too, of lofty mien;
They have done as worldlings do,
Taken praise that should be thine,
Little, humble Celandine!

Prophet of delight and mirth,
Scorned and slighted upon earth;
Herald of a mighty band,
Of a joyous train ensuing,
Singing at my heart's command,
In the lanes my thoughts pursuing,
I will sing as doth behove,
Hymns in praise of what I love.

ON EARLY IMPRESSIONS.

So powerful is the effect of first impressions and habits, that though a man may succeed in freeing his mind from prejudices, they will still retain some power over his imagination and his affections; and, therefore, however well he may speculate, his opinions will lose their power in situations where practical assistance is required; when his temper may be soured by misfortune, or ill-health, or when he may be exposed to the contagion of popular errors. How different

would be the case were education conducted from the beginning with judgment! Were pains taken to impress truth and virtue on the mind in early infancy, what aid would they not receive from the imagination and the heart, trained to conspire with them in the same direction! What advantages might not be derived from a proper attention to early impressions and associations, in giving support to those principles which are connected with human happiness! Let me suppose the happy period arrived when all the prepossessions of childhood and youth were directed to support the pure and sublime truths of religion and morality: they would assist and fortify our reason against the sceptical suggestions of irreligion, disappointment, and melancholy. Our daily experience may convince us how susceptible the tender mind is of deep impressions, and what important and permanent effects are produced on the characters and happiness of individuals, by the casual associations formed in childhood. It is the business of education, not to counteract this constitution of nature, but to direct it.

If it be possible for the influence of fashion to veil the native deformity of vice, and to give to low and sordid, and criminal pursuits and indulgences the appearance of spirit, of elegance, and of gaiety, can we doubt the possibility of connecting in the tender mind those pleasing associations with pursuits that are truly honourable and noble?—DUGALD STUART.

KIRKSTALL ABBEY, YORKSHIRE.

KIRKSTALL ABBEY is considered to be one of the most beautiful specimens of architectural ruins now to be found in England, and is one that has engaged the attention of numerous antiquaries, architects, and painters. It is situated in Yorkshire, in the lovely vale of the Aire, near the north bank of that river, and about three miles westward of the town of Leeds.

The abbey dates its origin in the year 1152. Henry de Lacey, being in a bad state of health, made a vow, that if he should recover, he would build an abbey in honour of the Blessed Virgin, and of the Cistercian Order. Accordingly, upon the recovery of his health, he gave the town of Bernoldswick, with its appurtenances, for this purpose; and the name was then changed to St. Mary's Mount. In 1147, Alexander, prior of Fountains Abbey*, was made first abbot of the new abbey then to be built; and on the 18th of May, with twelve monks and ten converts, he left Fountains Abbey, and located himself on St. Mary's Mount, the place being confirmed to him by the Archbishop of York.

Here they appear to have suffered many privations until the abbey was ready for their reception; but it was at length completed, Henry de Lacey, who made the first grant, being at the whole expense of the erection, himself laying the first stone.

Hugh Bigot, earl of Norfolk, afterwards claimed the lordship of Bernoldswick; and the abbot thence held it of him for five marks per annum; but at the request of Henry the Second, the earl afterwards made a free gift of it to the monks. During the life of this abbot, the buildings were extended by the addition of a church, dormitories both for monks and lay-brothers, refectory, cloister and chapter-house.

The revenues of the abbey were so well managed, that, at a visitation in the year 1301, the monks of this establishment were found to have 216 draught oxen, 160 cows, 152 yearlings and bullocks, 90 calves, 4000 sheep and lambs; while their debts amounted to only 160*l.*:—we say *only*, for many of the monas-

teries of that period were deeply in debt. At the dissolution of monastic establishments in the reign of Henry the Eighth, the endowments of Kirkstall Abbey amounted to 329*l.* 2*s.* 11*d.* per annum, by Dugdale's computation, or 512*l.* 13*s.* 4*d.* according to Speed. It was surrendered by John Ripley, the last abbot, November 22, 1540, the thirty-first of the reign of Henry VIII., by whom the site was granted to Thomas Cranmer, archbishop of Canterbury, and his heirs, in exchange for other land. In the reign of Edward the Sixth, the royal licence was granted to the Archbishop, to alienate the said premises to Peter Hammond and others, for the use of Thomas, a younger son of the Archbishop, and his heirs. It subsequently passed through several hands, and is now the property of the Earl of Cardigan.

Not many years after the dissolution of the abbey, various parts of the materials were carried away piecemeal. The lead from the roof, the bells, and everything of value which could be removed, were taken away for the king's use immediately after the dissolution; and subsequently the good people of Leeds resorted to the deserted abbey as a quarry whence they might procure stones for building; but its distance of three miles from the town, together with the increased use of brick, happily prevented these depredations from effecting the entire destruction of the building. But, as it has been observed, it is to the neglect of two centuries and a half, the unregarded growth of ivy, and the maturity of vast elms and other forest trees, which have been suffered to spring up among the walls, that Kirkstall has become, as a single object, one of the picturesque and beautiful ruins in the kingdom.

The general architectural merit of this abbey has been stated by Dr. Whitaker, the learned historian of Leeds, in the following words:—

The great merit of this structure, as a study for those who are desirous of assigning by internal evidence a proper date to every ancient building, is its unity of design and execution. Kirkstall Abbey is a monument of the skill, the taste, and the perseverance of a single man. Accordingly, there are in the original fabric no appearances of after-thought, no deviations from the first plan. Not only the arrangement, the proportions, and relations of the different apartments, are rigidly conformed to that peculiar principle which prevailed in the construction of religious houses, erected for, rather than at the expense of, the monks; but every moulding and ornament appears to have been wrought from models previously studied and adapted to the general plan. Deviating by one step from the pure Norman style, the columns of the church are massy as the cylinders of the former age, but channelled rather than clustered. The capitals are Norman, the intercolumniations, though narrow, yet nearly one-third wider than those of the most massy Saxon.

The whole building appears to be of the early Norman style, with the exception of some ornaments in the turretted and pinnacled style, and the upper part of the tower, which are of the age of Henry the Seventh and the Eighth. The church is in the form of a cross, and had a lofty tower, which remained entire until about sixty years ago, when an accident occurred which appears to have thus originated. The great kitchen of Kirkstall, together with a suite of apartments extending eastward from the south-east corner of the quadrangle towards the foundations of the abbot's lodgings, is of much later date than the rest; and an imprudent superstructure on the original tower, which rose but little above the acute-angled roof of the church, overweighed one of the four great columns at the intersection, which, after giving warning of its approaching fall for several years, was suddenly crushed by the vast superincumbent pile, on Wednesday night, Jan. 27, 1779, and brought down in its ruin more than two sides of the tower. Considered

* See *Saturday Magazine*, Vol. XV., p. 223.

merely as a ruin, the effect of the church was perhaps improved by the catastrophe; but the visible detachment of the end of the north transept, and above all of the great east window, from the adjoining walls, threatened to reduce the whole to ruin.

The chapter-house, which still remains nearly entire, is partly a remnant of the original structure, and partly an enlargement shortly before the dissolution. The refectory was a vaulted room, supported by cylindrical columns, each consisting of a single stone. The dormitory is supposed by some to have been over the set of buildings that verge to the southward from the transepts, while others suppose that this part of the monastery was placed over the range which communicates with the south-west angle of the church.

The cloister-court, or quadrangle, represented in our engraving, surrounds a range of buildings; and from this court, as Dr. Whitaker justly observes, the varied perspective, the broken masses of alternate light and shade diversifying the gloom, must have been admirably adapted to the solemnity of the monastic life. The cloister-court is now preserved from intrusion as an orchard, but it was formerly the cemetery not only of the monks, but also of the wealthy laity in the neighbouring country. A few fragments of gravestones and crosses remain, but there is only one remnant of an inscription, on which little more is visible than the word *RICARD*, in old English characters. The lavatory, near the south-east corner, has been richly adorned; westward from this was the refectory, a groined and not very spacious apartment. The original windows of the abbey have been single

round-headed lights, the first enlargement of the genuine Saxon and early Norman loophole, which was never intended for glass. For though Benedict Biscop is known to have introduced this great improvement into his church at Jarrow, the use of it does not appear to have been general among the Saxons, and the narrow apertures in their massy walls evidently point at a struggle between the admission of light and the exclusion of cold.

But no sooner (says Dr. Whitaker) did the use of glass become general, than windows began to expand, first into broader single lights, and next into two, included in the sweep of one common arch, but I conceive the introduction of painted glass to have suggested the necessity of widely-ramified windows, first, perhaps for the purpose of displaying an extended surface of vivid colouring, or a large group of historical figures, and, secondly, in order to compensate, by a wider surface, for the quantity of light excluded by their tints. This idea, which I have never met with before, is confirmed by chronology. The earliest stained glass which we read of, at least in the north of England, was in the possession of the monks of Rivaux about the year 1140. At this precise period, the narrow single lights began to expand; and as the use of it grew more and more general, the surfaces of windows became wider and more diversified.

It is a curious circumstance, that within a few days after the fall of the tower before alluded to, several fragments of little tobacco-pipes, or at least smoking pipes, were discovered imbedded in the mortar. This has been considered as a proof that long before the introduction of tobacco from America, the practice of inhaling the smoke of some indigenous vegetable prevailed in England.



RUINS OF KIRSTALL ABBEY.